DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 168 299 FL 010 073

AUTHOR Crosthwait, Charles; Billiard, Charles E.
TITLE Ethnic Attitudes and Language Usage.
PUB DATE 78
NOTE 23p.; Paper presented at the convention of the National Council for Social Studies (Houston, Texas, November 22, 1978); Parts may be marginally legible due to light print

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Black Attitudes; Blacks; Caucasians; Cross Cultural Studies; Cultural Factors; *Cultural Images; Ethnic Groups; *Ethnicity; Ethnic Stereotypes; Ethnic Studies; Language Patterns; *Language Usage; Language Variation; *Nonstandard Dialects; *Racial Attitudes; Regional Dialects; Sociolinguistics; *Speech Habits; Standard Spoken Usage; Urban Studies
IDENTIFIERS *Ethnic Attitudes

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study reported here was: (1) to determine whether any predictable relationships exist between the spoken language patterns of individuals and those individuals' ethnic attitudes; and (2) to identify the degree of association present among various selected demographic factors, language patterns, and ethnic attitudes. The particular questions under study here sought information on the relation of standard-nonstandard language patterns to ethnic attitudes on a black-white racial base. Recordings were made of interviews with 162 Atlanta Metropolitan area residents who were classified according to educational level and to the kind of speech they used (standard or nonstandard). The data collected were analyzed as follows: (1) each subject's speech was classified; (2) subjects received numerical scores on the Cultural Attitude Scales (Anglo-Black); (3) subjects were sorted into groups based on the demographic data collected; and (4) a multiple regression computation was used to assess the relationship of scores on the cultural attitude scales to speech, education level, race, age group, and sex. A Pearson correlation was also computed on all of the above categories of data. It is noted that educational level seems to be the best predictor of speech pattern. From the findings, it is concluded that (1) nonstandard speech patterns and black race when found together may predict high black ethnic preference; and (2) in this study, none of the variables have predictive value for ethnic attitude toward whites. (AMH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED168299

Ethnic Attitudes and Language Usage*

(A research report concerning the relationships among standard-non-standard speech, black-white ethnic attitudes and selected demographic variables.)

Prepared by

Charles Crosthwait and Charles Billiard

Georgia State University

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Charles Crosthwait and Charles Billiard

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

FL010073

The following data were collected from 162 respondents in the Atlanta, Georgia metropolitan area during 1977 and 1978.

*Summary report prepared for "Ethnic Attitudes and Language Usage" paper presented at the National Council for Social Studies Convention, Houston, Texas, November 22, 1978.

I. Introduction

We are all aware of the ethnic plurality of present day American society. Not only are we tolerating ethnic characteristics in our every day lives but we are encouraging the preservation of our various ethnic heritages and bringing their characteristics more fully into every day life. As ethnocentric behavior becomes more common place, the opportunity for each individual to form attitudes concerning various ethnic groups increases.

For many Americans these new ethnic contacts may well be first impressions of a larger generic group of individuals. We are all familiar with the tendency on the part of many persons to stereotype large groups from limited contacts with individuals felt to be representative of a larger group. These first impressions are made up of a range of individual characteristics. Such things as body type and size, hair and eye color, skin color, and language usage, loom large in this process of transfer from individual to group characteristics.

This project centered particularly on the relationship of spoken language and the speaker's ethnic attitudes. In short, the proposition investigated and the findings herein disseminated relate to the following questions: Does the spoken language pattern of individuals reveal any predictable relationship to that individual's ethnic feelings? Is it possible to accurately predict the ethnic feelings of an individual from a sample of spoken language? Answers to these questions should help enhance cross cultural understanding and appreciation. The investigation was confined to the Atlanta, Georgia, metropolitan area.

In this urban setting, different ethnic groups living in close proximity are often involved in continuous competition and conflict. Socially productive cooperation among these groups and life opportunities of individual minority members are frequently restricted because of stereotyped versions of one group

by another. These stereotyped views of the culture or life style of various ethnic groups toward each other are expressed and frequently aggravated through language usage; i.e., through the use of derigrating expressions describing another cultural group or through misunderstandings arising from dialect differences. If ethnic groups understood that linguistic ethnocentrism naturally accompanies cultural ethnocentricism, this could help establish a bridge for better understanding and cooperation among various ethnic and racial groups within the urban community.

II. Statement of Objectives and Expected Outcomes

The purposes of this investigation were (1) to determine whether any predictable relationships exist between the spoken language patterns of individuals and those individuals' ethnic attitudes (a pilot study by Crosthwait and Billiard strongly suggested such relationships exist); (2) to identify the degree of association present among various selected demographic factors, language patterns, and ethnic attitudes.

A further purpose of the investigation is to disseminate information about the nature of language stereotyping of ethnic groups to community leaders in education, business, and social work.

III. Plan Of Investigation and Strategies of Analysis

This investigation was conducted within the framework of a large-scale investigation of Southern speech, the Linguistic Atlas of the Gulf States (LAGS) project and within the broader context of social and regional dialectology. In the United States, during the last half century, research methods for regional and social dialect studies have been honed to a sharp edge by scholars working in the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada projects.

Although Southern speech has received popular attention in the past and especially during the Carter presidential campagain and administration, no other

large set of regional and social dialects in this country has been treated less systematically by American linguists. To remedy this situation, Dr. Lee Pederson, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, began preliminary work on the Linguistic Atlas of the Gulf States project in 1968. This investigation of Southern speech includes 591 counties and parishes in an eight-state region. Approximately 800 interviews using a questionnaire of 1100 items of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation were planned. These interviews, nearly completed now, sample the speech of three types of informants:

Type I: Little formal education, little reading and restricted social contacts.

Type II: Better formal education (usually high school) and/or wider reading and social contacts.

Type III: Superior education (usually college), cultural background, wide reading and/or extensive contacts.

Care was taken to secure a representative of both Black and White speech; furthermore, a supplemental questionnaire was developed to investigate the speech of major Southern cities.

As may be seen from the previous discussion, ethnic and geographic language patterns do exist. It may further be seen that the separation of American English language patterns into standard and nonstandard categories is a well documented grouping device readily associated with social and cultural characteristics. The questions under study here seek information on the relation of the standard-nonstandard language patterns to ethnic attitudes on a black, white, racial base.

The obvious question then arises as to whether or not any cultural ethnic attitudes of measurable difference exist between these two large cultural groups. It is assumed that measurable differences exist due to the history of black-white relations in the South and Atlanta in particular.

In an attempt to determine if a relationship exists between "type of spoken language" and "ethnic preference" the following data collection procedures and analyses were employed. Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia, trained a number of graduate students in dialect fieldwork. This project employed several of these persons to conduct dialect field interviews with 162 informants. These fieldworkers also collected ethnic attitude data from the informants by using the Cross Cultural Attitude Inventories, Black and Anglo Scales. Each fieldworker conducted a linguistic Atlas interview with an informant who was a resident in the Atlanta metropolitan area (within a forty to fifty mile radius of Atlanta) and whose speech pattern was **decidedly southern.** The instrument used in the interviews was selected items from the LAGS questionnaire which consists of some 1100 vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation items, along with the Urban Supplement of 200 vocabulary items. An attempt was made to secure interviews representative of the Black and White population and of speakers in categories I, II, and III as defined above. A fourth category was added to include high school students from 15 to 20 years of age in order to secure data that could give insight into language and cultural attitude changes across a wider range of age.

After the completion of each interview which was tape recorded, the interviewer asked the informant to complete the Anglo-American and Black Cultural Attitude Scales.

The next step required the interviewer to make a thirty minute transcription of a portion of the tape containing a representative sampling of the informant's free conversation. An analysis was then made of the transcription to determine whether the speaker should be classified as using standard or nonstandard speech for the Atlanta metropolitan area.

Important considerations in this study are how the criteria and procedures used to classify the informants as speakers of standard and nonstandard American

English were selected. Essentially two approaches to the question of usage criteria needed to be weighed: (1) one is the prescriptive view which assumes that correctness in language is rooted in fixed, unchanging rules inherent in the nature of the language; (2) a second approach is the descriptive view which relies on careful observation of actual usage and defines standard usage as the public language used by the best educated and most prominent members of a speech community.

The prescriptive or conventional point of view toward language usage was handed down from eighteenth century English grammarians and repeated in schoolbook after schoolbook from then on. Decisions as to whether specific language variations are to be considered standard or nonstandard (e.g., dived versus dove for the past tense; drank versus drunk for the past participle) can be readily made by reference to scholarly traditional handbooks such as Fowler's Modern English Usage. On the other hand, the descriptive approach to the problem of determining standard usage is distinguished by its reliance upon the observation of the language habits of people in a variety of social situations and from various social classes. Such an approach discovers that some types of American English are more prestigious than others. The more prestigious usage (i.e., standard English) derives its favorable position from the prestige in society of those who speak or write it. From this viewpoint, criteria follow rather than precede or prescribe the grammar of speaking and writing. Such criteria for determining whether specific language features are to be considered standard or nonstandard can be derived from the evidence available from the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada projects.

For the purposes of this study, the descriptive sources of criteria for assessing language performance as standard or nonstandard seemed more appropriate, especially when the realities of language change with time, place (regional

variations), and social situations are considered. The source of guidelines selected was "A Checklist of Significant Features for Discriminating Social Dialects" by McDavid (Appendix C). McDavid developed this checklist largely from collections of the regional linguistic atlases, research conducted in the spirit of the descriptive philosophy.

To make use of this checklist which identifies nonstandard features observed throughout major dialect regions of the United States, the investigators followed the procedure of sampling three segments of one hundred words each near the beginning, middle, and end of each informant's interview for the occurrence of nonstandard elements on the checklist. These three segments were selected to help ensure representative sampling of the informant's speech as it varied from a more formal style at the outset of the interview to a more informal style as the interview progresses. An informant's speech was then classified as nonstandard when one or more nonstandard features occurred in one or more of the three speech segments (Appendix D and E).

As previously mentioned, each interviewer had each informant respond to Cross Cultural Attitude Inventories, Black and Anglo Scales, authored by Stephen A. Jackson. It is assumed that the Black and Anglo scales will adequately determine whether ethnic preferences exist and the direction of such ethnic preferences. These scales are well constructed non-verbal commercial devices available through Learning Concepts, Austin, Texas (Appendix A). A demographic data sheet was constructed to gather basic data on each individual informant (Appendix B).

The data collected were analyzed in the following manner:

A. Each subject's speech was classified as standard or nonstandard English. (as previously described)

B. Subjects received a numerical, individual score on the Cultural Attitude Scales. (Anglo-Black)

C. Subjects were further sorted into groups based on the demographic data collected. (See population description)

D. A multiple regression computation was used to assess the relationship of scores on the Anglo Scale to speech, education level, race, age group, and sex. The same regression computation was used to assess the relationship of scores on the Black Scale to speech, education level, race, age group and sex. A Pearson correlations was also computed on all of the above categories of data. These processes provide a base of prediction concerning the relationships found among these data. The .05 level of significance was used in all decisions relative to these data.

IV. The Population

The before mentioned process produced complete data on one hundred and sixty-two cases. The following table shows the numbers present in each category of analysis.

Table I

Population Breakdown, N=162 Demographic Data

	Speech	Sex		Age				Race		Education		
Standard	N Standard	Male	Female	15-19	20-39	40-59	60+	Black	White	0-8	9-12	13+
N=100	62	74	88	22	45	44	51	71	90	32	50	80
%=61.7	38.2	45.7	54.3	13.6	27.8	27.2	30.9	43.8	55.6	19.8	30.9	49.4

An examination of this population reveals several points which should be kept in mind when evaluating the reported results.

A great difficulty was experienced in securing a balanced population. The South does not have a large population of well educated black citizens in the sixty year old and older category. Educational opportunities were not great during these persons' early life. Therefore, while the race category is relatively well balanced, the education balance among black and white informants may not be as well proportioned.

Table II

Education Level Broken Down by Sex and Race

Education Level	Black		White	
	Male	Female*	Male	Female
0-8	N=5	8	10	8
9-12	11	14	9	16
13+	16	16	22	25

*No race response for one female

As may be seen from an examination of Table I and II, a large proportion of the total population is in the higher education group. This would certainly be reflected in the much larger number of standard speakers in this population.

It should also be called to the reader's attention that this is an adult population. Only 13.6 percent of the total population is in the fifteen to nineteen age group. The upper age limits of the population reached into the eighty year old group with one person over ninety.

V. Presentation of Findings

As stated earlier, a multiple regression was calculated for the relation of Anglo scores to speech, education, race, age, and sex.

This calculation revealed that speech, taken without regard to standard or nonstandard classification, was most highly related to the Anglo scores. This relationship was not large enough to be significant. Education, without regard to groupings, was the next largest contributor to the differences but was not large enough to be significant. The other variables contributed to the difference in the following order of magnitude; race, age, and sex. In total, all of these variables account for only 3.4 percent of the variation among the Anglo scores.

It may be seen from these relationships that scores on the Anglo scale are not predictable by a person's speech, education level, race, age, or sex.

A multiple regression was also calculated for the Black scores. Results rather different from the Anglo scale results were found. The Black scale score is very highly related to race. An F of 14.1139 was obtained while an F of only 3.84 was needed for significance. Over eight percent of the variance is accounted for by this relationship. An examination of the Pearson correlation matrix reveals a highly significant correlation between race and Black scale scores. The direction of the correlation, in relation to the coding of race for computation, indicates that blacks score significantly higher on the Black scale than do whites.

Speech also is significantly related to the Black scale scores. When race and speech are considered together an F of 9.2286 was obtained for this relationship. An examination of the Pearson correlation matrix indicates that while speech is not significantly correlated with the black scores speech is highly correlated with race (.001 level). This indicates, from codings for computation

that a significantly higher number of whites have standard speech, leaving more blacks with nonstandard speech. Thus it may be seen that black's with non-standard speech score high on the Black scale. It then becomes predictable that blacks with nonstandard speech patterns will score high on the Black scale.

The regression computation indicates that the variables of education, age and sex do not contribute significantly to the variance in Black scale scores. Race and speech account for 10.401 percent of the variance. With all variables included this percentage of variance rises only to 10.733.

It may be seen from these relationships that scores on the Black scale may be predicted to be higher than White scores if the respondent is black and a nonstandard speaker. A further examination of the relationships indicates that these two variables are so strong that when other variables (education, age, and sex) are introduced into the regression they actually detract from the relationship.

An examination of the Pearson Correlation Coefficients indicates some further relationships of note. Of the twenty-one correlations computed, four are significant.

There is a significant positive correlation between Anglo and Black scores. This indicates that people who score high on one scale also score high on the other.

There is a significant negative correlation between education and speech. This means that the higher the educational level the more likely one is to be a standard speaker.

There is also a significant negative correlation between race and the Black scale scores. This means that blacks score higher on the Black scale than whites on the Black scale.

There is a significant negative correlation between speech and race. This means that more whites have standard speech while more blacks have non-standard speech.

VI. Conclusions and Summary

As previously stated, the thrust of this study was to explore the possibility of predicting ethnic attitude from speech patterns.

From these findings it may be concluded that nonstandard speech patterns and black race when found together may predict high black ethnic preference.

Among the black population, of this study, the best prediction of both speech and attitude is race.

In relation to the prediction of ethnic attitude toward whites, in this study, none of these variables, speech, race, age, education or sex seem to have predictive value.

Perhaps the most significant correlation between speech and education came to light (.001 level). This simply indicates that the best prediction of speech pattern is educational level and this is true for both black and white. The relationship appears predictable that the higher the education level the more likely one is to be a standard speaker.

It should be noted in passing that these findings indicate that age and sex, in this order, are the least valid predictors of ethnic attitudes.

In summary it appears that educational level is the best predictor of speech pattern. The association between spoken language pattern and ethnic preference appears to say that nonstandard speaking blacks have a high positve attitude toward blacks. The association between spoken language pattern and ethnic preference, among standard speaking blacks, and both standard and non-standard speaking whites, appears to need more investigation. It can be stated

that these groups seem to have less differences among their ethnic preferences since rising scores on one scale relate positively to rising scores on the opposite scale.

It strongly appears that it matters of relation of speech to ethnic preference it makes little difference if one is young or old, male or female.

APPENDIX A

Cultural Attitude Scales

The Anglo and Black American Cultural Attitude Scales were chosen as the measure of ethnic attitude in this study. These were chosen due to the wide range of unpredictable reading levels encountered within the population. These scales are pictoral in nature and allow responses without regard to reading level.

According to Stephen A. Jackson and Perry Alan Zirkel:

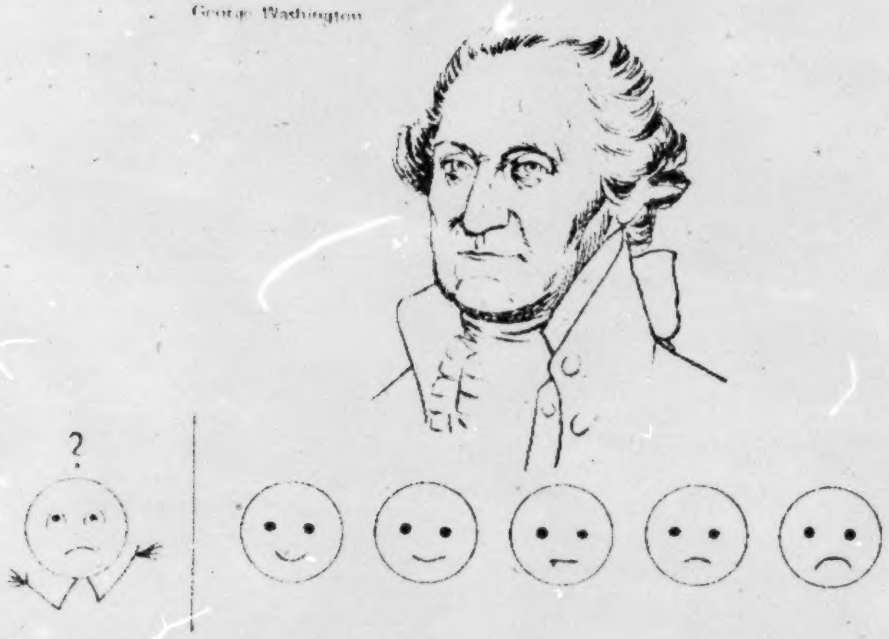
> The Afro-American, Mexican-American and Anglo-American Cultural Attitude Inventories represent the continuation of the research and development behind the Cross-Cultural Scales (1973, 1974). The Cross-Cultural Attitude Inventory was designed to measure the attitudes of children participating in bilingual programs in the Southwest toward the Mexican and American culturals. Perry A. Zirkel, University of Hartford, Hartford, Connecticut, later developed Black, Puerto Rican, and Anglo scales to measure cultural attitudes using the same basic technique.[1]
>
> The need for more specific and tangible stimulus and response modes relevant to minority--as well as majority--group children in the school setting prompted the development by Jackson and Klinger (1971) of the Cross-Cultural Attitude Scale. This scale incorporates pictorial stimuli representing concrete components of the Mexican-American and Anglo-American cultures. This pictorial response mode consists of five faces on a happy-sad dimension which graphically represents a one-to-five Likert-type scale. The use of faces as a response mode has been used with regard to self-concept research (e.g., Dysinger's WHY DO I SMILE SCALE, Estes' ATTITUDE TOWARD READING FACES SCALE, Farrah's SELF CONCEPT AND MOTIVATION INVENTORY, Frymier's FACES SCALE, and Strickland's ATTITUDE TO SCHOOL SCALE).[2]
>
> An examination of the format reveals the primary basis for face validity, in that the stimuli and response mode are straightforward, giving a clear measure of feelings for and familiarity with each culture.[1]
>
> When students involved in cultural enrichment programs improve their scores over a period of time (such as a pre-test/post-test situation) the results may be interpreted to indicate program success.[1]

Item-test correlations range from .41 to .73. Reliability of all inventories is "well above normally acceptable levels, particularly for measuring a construct as elusive as cultural attitudes."[1]

The scales are scored on a one to five scale point base moving from right to left. With a total of fifteen pictures in each scale, a score of zero to seventy-five is possible. The questioning face is not scored.

The following two pictures are selections from the Black and Anglo scales.

Anglo American Cultural Attitude Scale



Black American Cultural Attitude Scale

Figures reduced by one-third.

---

[1]Jackson, Stephan A., Cultural Attitude Inventories (Austin, Texas: Learning Concepts, 1977), p. 11.

[2]Zirkel, Perry Alan, Cultural Attitude Test Manual.

APPENDIX B

LINGUISTIC ATLAS OF THE GULF STATES PROJECT: PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Interviewer_____ Date_____

Community_____ County_____ State_____

Informant_____ Address_____

Birthplace_____ Age_____ Sex_____ Race_____

Occupation_____ Religion

Education (schools attended, last grade completed, literacy)

Social contacts (working companions, business contacts, close friends, church, clubs, travel)

Parents' birthplace: Mother_____ Father_____

Parents' education: Mother_____ Father_____

Parents' occupation: Mother_____ Father_____

Maternal grandparents (birthplace, education, occupation, sources of earlier ancestry)

Spouse's age_____ Race_____ Religion_____ Education_____

Social contacts_____

Parental ancestry:

Community sketch:

Character sketch:

Appendix C

A checklist of Significant Features for Discriminating Social Dialects - by Raven I. McDavid, Jr.

This list, published in Culture, Class, and Language Variety, A. L. Davis, ed., National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Ill., 1973, was derived by McDavid largely from collections of the regional linguistic atlases.

Pronunciation

1. The distinction between /θ/ as in *thin* and /t/ in *tin*, /f/ in *fin*, /s/ in *sin*.

2. Failure to make the similar distinction between /ð/ in *then* and /d/, /v/, /z/.

3. Failure to make the distinction between the vowels of *bird* and *Boyd*, *curl* and *coil*.

A generation ago this contrast was most significant among older speakers of the New York metropolitan area. It has become less important, since few younger speakers confuse these pairs. But it still should be noted, not only for New York City but for New Orleans as well.

At one time a monophthongal /ai/ in the South was standard in final position and before voiced consonants, as in *rye* and *ride*, but substandard before voiceless consonants as in *right*. This is no longer true; many educated southerners have monophthongal /ai/ in all positions and the number is increasing.

4. The omission of a weak stressed syllable preceding the primary stress, so that in substandard speech *professor* may become *fessor*, *reporter* become *porter*, and *insurance* become *shoo-ance* or *sho-unce*.

5. A statistically disproportionate frontshifting of the primary stress giving such forms as *po-lice*, *in-surance*, *ca-ficiency* and *guitar*, etc.

   Front-shifting is characteristic of English borrowings from other languages; in *balcony* it is completely acceptable, in *hotel* and *July*, acceptability is conditioned by position in the sentence.

6. Heavy stress on what is a weak stressed final syllable in standard English, giving *accident, element, president, evidence,* etc.

Inflection

NOUN

7. Lack of the noun plural: Two *boy* came to see me.

8. Lack of the noun genitive: This is *Mr. Brown* hat.

PRONOUN

9. Analogizing of the /-n/ of *mine* to other absolute genitives, yielding *ourn, yourn, hisn, hern, theirn.*

10. Anaologizing of the compound reflexives, yielding *hisself, theirselves.*

DEMONSTRATIVES

11. Substitution of *them* for *those,* as *them* books.

12. Compound demonstratives: *these-here dogs, them-(th)ere cats.*

ADJECTIVES

13. Analogizing of inflected comparisons: the *wonderfullest* time, a *lovinger* child.

14. Double comparisons: a *more prettier* dress, the *most ugliest* man.

VERB

15. Unorthodox person-number concord of the present of *to be.* This may be manifest in generalizing of *am* or *is* or *are,* or in the use of *be* with all persons.

16. Unorthodox person-number concord of the past of *be:* I *were* or we *was.*

17. Failure to maintain person-number concord of the present indicative of other verbs: *I does, he do.* (This is perhaps the most clearly diagnostic feature.)

Note that three third person singular forms of common verbs are irregular: *has, does* /dʌz/, *says* /sez/; in the last two the spelling conceals the irregularity, but many speakers who are learning this inflection will say /duz/ and /sez/.

18. Ommission of /-ɪŋ/ of the present participle: He was *open* a can of beer.

    Note that both /ɪŋ/ and /in/ may be heard in standard speech, depending on region and styles.

19. Omission of /-t, -d, -əd/ of the past tense; I *burn a hole* in my pants yesterday.

    Note that before a word beginning with a consonant the /-d/ may be omitted in speech in *I burned my* pants. Those who have this contextual loss of sound need to learn the special conventions of writing.

20. Omission of /-t, -d, -əd/ of the past participle.

21. Omission of the verb *to be* in statements before a predicate nominative. *He a good boy.*

    Note that in questions this omission may occur in standard oral English, though it would never be written in standard expository prose.

22. Omission of *to be* in statements before adjectives: *They ready.*

23. Omission of *to be* in statements before present participles: *I going with you.*

24. Omission of *to be* in statements before past participle: *The window broken.*

25. Omission of the /-s, -z, -əz/ reflex of *has* before *been* in statements: *He been drinking.*

    Note that this omission my occur in questions in standard oral English and also that in standard oral English many educated speakers may omit the /-v/ reflex of *have: I been thinking about it; we been telling you this,* though it would not be omitted in standard expository prose.

26. Substitution of *been, done,* or *done been* for *have,* especially with a third person singular subject: *He done been finished.* In other situations the /-v/ may be lost, as in #25 (the preceding situation).

APPENDIX D

Sample of Nonstandard Atlanta Speech

(One hundred word sample bracketed with nonstandard features of McDavid checklist circled.)

I'll put this microphone over a little closer to you. It may not be - it may be too far away. Do your children all live around here?

["Waal, I go, uh, they stay here in Atlanta, 'cause I got two daughters stayin' in Decatur, but my sons (lives) in Decatur and Atlanta."

What do they do?

"Uh, kinda, that's, that's a problem. See, I live alone."

Yeah.

"None ('um) stay with me. I think one of m' daughters, she's, uh, this here program - training program, and th' other 'un, the oldest one, she's on the welfare, and uh, see, she can't hear too well. She had a operation I think back in, oh, (unintelligible) a ways back, and they operated on her head, 'cause she had a tumor. They (lef') her deaf."]

The operation left her deaf?

"Yeah. So, then, I had two deaf ones, now my oldest boy, he's deaf, and he's on disability. My youngest boy, he ain't doin' nothin', so my next oldest boy, he ain't doin' anything, he's tryin' to catch out."

Trying to?

"You know, go piccolo, whatever you call 'at, catch out jobs, you know, odd jobs everyday, he ain' got no reg'lar job, ain' none of 'em got no reg'lar job."

These professors are doing a study on the way people talk, too, and they're interested in slang words used in various areas.

APPENDIX E

Sample of Standard Atlanta Speech

Aunt Mamie, you... you married and went to live, soon after, went to live at Allenwood, a farm. I know you lived there for awhile, and I wonder if you could tell me a little bit about life there on the farm?

"After having been raised in a hotel, in the center, in the center of town, all I knew about farm life and country life was what I could . . . had heard my mother tell. She had been raised on the farm. An un, an uh, uh, in a hotel, uh, we sat up late at night, an uh, we had something going on all the time, an uh, I didn't, I didn't realize how much it would mean to go to bed early and get plenty of sleep and get up early until I taught school awhile in the country. An, uh, the farmers, the farm home where I stayed, would get up before day an sit and wait for daylight to come. An then we had breakfast. They had to wake me up . . . I wouldn't have time to get dressed. . . to have breakfast. Then, of course, after getting up so early, you'd have to go to bed early at night too, you know, so it, that prepared me for deciding to marry a farmer and move to the country because that sort of life . . . you just felt better. In the country they didn't have, at that time they didn't have telephones nor doorbells, an' the only thing to disturb the atmosphere. Sometimes we'd heard owls, an' I thought I would be afraid in the country, but I wasn't. There was just something about it that made you feel secure, living in a big woods an so forth. It might been having a husband around that I knew would be thinking on me all the time."